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PUTTING THEORY IN PRACTICE: THE ROLE OF METADISOURSE IN ATTAINING PERSUASION IN ADVERTISING SLOGANS

Abstract: This paper applies the theory of metadiscourse as a framework for understanding communication as social engagement (Hyland, 2005c) to a practical study of the use of engagement markers as metadiscourse markers and their contribution to attaining persuasion in advertising slogans as a genre. Metadiscourse markers are employed by speakers or writers in order to guide listeners' or readers' perception of their message and persuade them to share and accept their opinions. Their usage contributes to the creation of the three rhetorical modes of persuasion: ethos, logos and pathos (Aristotle) and the achievement of logical, credible and affective appeal (Hyland, 1998, 2005c). So, the paper focuses on analysis of the form, use and pragmatic function of engagement markers as interpersonal metadiscourse markers in 40 advertising slogans from English advertisements and 40 from Macedonian advertisements with the aim to investigate their contribution to the persuasive effect in this specific genre.

The analysis (both quantitative and qualitative) confirmed the theory that the main pragmatic function of engaging metadiscourse in print advertisements is to persuade clients to buy specific things or services. In both corpora copywriters used engagement markers to establish a close relationship with their potential customers by involving them in the discourse and trying to persuade them to act. Although carried out on a limited corpus, the results of the analysis raise the awareness of the use of metadiscourse in advertising and its persuasive effect on the audience.

Key words: *advertising slogans, metadiscourse, engagement markers, persuasion*

1. Introduction

This paper aims to first theorise the importance of metadiscourse markers, and more specifically engagement markers¹ as interpersonal metadiscourse markers in attaining persuasion in advertising slogans as a specific genre of advertising and then put this theory in practice to confirm the authors' standing point. Several authors have done research on the use of metadiscourse markers (Fuertes-Olivera et.al., 2001, Ivorra-Perez,

¹ see Hyland 2005c

2015) or the language used in advertising (Cook, 1992; Flis, 2009; Lapšanská, 2006; Sušinskienė, 2013; Jingxia et.al., 2015). However, there is not much research done on the use of engagement markers as specific types of metadiscourse markers in advertising slogans as a genre, although, we believe, based on our experience as customers and consumers, that they are the main contributors to attaining persuasion in any type of advertising, especially in slogans. Fuertes et al. (2001) come to the conclusion that copywriters mostly use person markers, hedges and emphatics for alerting addressees, but we move forward and concentrate only on engagement markers as interpersonal metadiscourse markers which, in our opinion, help them the most to achieve this aim. In order to confirm the validity of our theorising we base it on a contrastive empirical study of the form, use and pragmatic function of engagement markers used in slogans in two different societies, Macedonia and the USA. The objective is to see whether copywriters in both societies opt for these markers when creating slogans.

2. Theorising theory: persuasion, advertising slogans and engagement metadiscourse markers

In this section we give a theoretical overview of the genre of advertising slogans, the theory of persuasion and finally, the role of engagement metadiscourse markers in attaining persuasion in advertising.

2.1 Advertising slogans

Advertisements have their own integrity as a persuasive genre (Bhatia, 2004). Their aim is to inform a customer of products or services and persuade them to take action. Companies in both countries invest a large sum of money in promoting themselves and the products they produce and sell, so, it is of vital importance for them that they are advertised in the best possible manner. Slogans are very short texts they use to create a brand and get customers' attention (see Myers, 1994). Although they are informative in content, they actually aim to convey a persuasive message under an informative mask (Fuertes et al., 2001: 1295).

Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001: 1294) define advertising communication "as social activity which functions in our culture in order to facilitate the selling of products and/or services." Therefore, "advertising can tell us a good deal about our own society and our own psychology" (Cook, 1996: 3). Since advertising as an act of communication (Myers, 1995), the language of advertising is a special type of language (Leech, 1966). According to Leech (1966) and Dyers (1993), the language of advertising is "loaded language". It means that copywriters use different rhetorical strategies to produce an emotional response in the mind of the audience, in order to directly affect their views on a topic and make them buy their products.

Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001: 1292) define two subgenres of the genre of advertising: publicity and commercial advertising; the text-type of the advertisement is further subdivided into 'digital advertisement', 'broadcast advertisement', 'print advertisement' and 'outdoor advertisement'. They claim that print advertising is "one domain where an orientation toward the reader is crucial in securing rhetorical objectives" (Fuertes-Olivera et al., 2001: 1292). According to Johnson (2003/2004), print advertisements illustrate that "the form and content of contemporary print ads are both influenced and

constrained by their belonging to the genre of print advertisements.” This genre requires that print ads have a particular form and content. In terms of form, print ads always use the print medium, but their structure and style can vary. Johnson (2003/2004) identifies several functions that print ads have: to sell, inform, entertain and criticize. However, successful advertising, as Fuertes-Olivera et al. (2001: 1293) state “avoids pushing consumers to buy, but rather persuades them, thus reducing the psychological burden consumers suffer during their buying sprees.”

2.2 Persuasion and Rhetoric

The art of persuasion or rhetoric is at least as old as early Greek literature although the rhetorical practices of persuasion are not always the same in all cultures (Hardin, 2001: 194). Persuasive discourse is defined by Lakoff (1982: 28) as the nonreciprocal “attempt or intention of one party to change the behaviour, feelings, intentions or viewpoint of another by communicative means.” Aristotle’s *On Rhetoric*² shows that a speaker’s ability to persuade an audience is based on how well the speaker appeals to that audience in three different areas: ethos (an appeal to credibility or character), pathos (an appeal to emotion), and logos (an appeal to logic or reason). Considered together, these appeals form what later rhetoricians have called the rhetorical triangle.

Aristotle’s ethos, pathos, and logos are very important for a text’s construction and composition. Metadiscourse markers contribute to the construction of these rhetorical elements; therefore, it is obvious that metadiscourse and rhetoric are closely related. According to Hyland (2005c: 75-85), metadiscourse conveys the rational appeals when it explicitly links elements of the argument; it conveys an ethos where it refers to the writer’s authority and competence; and it projects a pathos where it signals respect for the readers’ viewpoint.

The goal of advertising is to persuade potential customers to take action (usually buy a product or service). Therefore, persuasion is the main function of advertising. Persuasive advertising is intended to induce people to buy (Kruti & Alan, 2009), so copywriters pay specific attention to language when designing the advertisements. The language of persuasion is an inevitable element for a successful advertising campaign. Copywriters use various techniques to direct the customers’ actions, feelings, attitudes and beliefs and increase the promotion of a product, idea or service. The advertisement causes reactions and the customers decide whether and what to buy or not to buy. Kenechukwu et al. (2013: 955), state that persuasive advertising “seeks to entice consumers into purchasing specific goods and services by appealing to their emotions and general sensibilities.”

2.3 Metadiscourse: Engagement markers as interpersonal metadiscourse markers

Since metadiscourse “offers a way of understanding language in use, representing a writer’s attempts to guide a receiver’s perception of a text” (Hyland 2005c), its appropriate use is of vital importance for copywriters to reach their audience in the best possible manner. As a central pragmatic construct, it “allows us to see how writers seek to influence readers’ understandings of both the text and their attitude towards its content and the audience (Hyland, 1998: 437).”

² translated 2010

Interpersonal metadiscourse³ serves to maintain and build relations between the writer and the reader. The aim of interpersonal metadiscourse markers is to “spotlight the ways writers conduct interaction by intruding and commenting on their message and often this is referred to as the ‘voice’ or personality of the writer” (Sanford, 2012: 8). Hyland (1998) defines five subcategories of interpersonal metadiscourse markers⁴ but for the purposes of this paper we focus only on analysis of engagement markers.

Engagement markers are used by writers to address the readers directly and involve them into their discourse by building an engaging relationship with them with directives, personal pronouns, questions and comments or asides (Hyland 1998, 2005c). Engagement markers are among the factors that make a text “reader friendly” (Allami and Serajfard, 2012: 75). In print advertising they are used to attract customers’ attention and involve them in interaction with the copywriter. At the same time, their use helps (copy)writers to present themselves as competent, authoritative and sincere, thus creating an effective Ethos, as well as to engage readers (potential customers) into the discourse, build solidarity with them and influence their judgment, creating an effective Pathos (Hyland, 2005c: 75-85). Therefore, the use of these markers contributes to the overall persuasive effect of texts. Having this in mind, we assume that the more they are used in slogans, the more persuasive the text will be. Therefore, we focus on analysis of the use of the following three categories of engagement markers: a) directives as appeals for action (AA); b) questions (rhetorical and short questions with a suggested or given answer) and c) personal pronouns (1st and 2nd person pronouns). In addition, we contrast Macedonian and English corpora to see whether copywriters in both societies opt for the same type of markers when creating slogans. If they do, then we assume then it is because they are convinced of their persuasive effect on the audience.

3. Materials and methods

As already mentioned in the introduction, this paper sets out to explore the form, frequency of use and pragmatic function of engagement markers i.e. directives as appeals for action (AA) questions and personal pronouns in English and Macedonian advertising slogans. More precisely, it aims to investigate their contribution to the attainment of persuasion as an ultimate goal of slogans. For this reason, a corpus of 40 English slogans (mostly found on https://www.google.com/imghp?gws_rd=ssl) and 40 Macedonian slogans (selected from two magazines *Unique*, *Tea Moderna* and Avon catalogue) was compiled. We focused on print advertising slogans, which cover different topics such as health, fashion, sport, food and drinks, etc. For the English corpus, we selected slogans promoting mostly products and companies which are well-known worldwide, such as *Orbit*, *Nike*, *Starbucks*, *Pringles*, *Timberland*, *Instagram*, *Samsung*, *Red Bull* etc. As for the Macedonian corpus, besides Macedonian brands, we included slogans which

³ Based on Crismore et al. (1993) and Vande Kopple’s (1985) model, Hyland (2005) divided metadiscourse into two main domains: textual and interpersonal. He states that the function of the textual metadiscourse is to help guide readers through the text while that of the interpersonal metadiscourse is to involve the reader in the argument. Engagement markers are one type of interpersonal metadiscourse markers.

⁴ According to Hyland’s (1998, 2005c) classification, the subcategories of the interpersonal metadiscourse are realized as ‘hedges’, ‘boosters’, ‘engagement markers’, ‘attitude markers’ and ‘self-mentions’.

also promote some very popular products and companies such as: *T-mobile, Coca-Cola, Lenor, Colgate, Fanta, Fiat, Pepsi, Milka, Avon* etc. The analysis focused only on the verbal message of slogans. The multimodal elements were not analysed. Both qualitative and quantitative analyses were made and the main focus was to answer two research questions:

- (1) *How frequently are engagement markers used as a strategy in both English and Macedonian advertising slogans?*

Our expectations (Hypothesis 1) were that they would be used very frequently in both corpora. We based our first hypothesis on our experience as customers. The text presented in the slogans is short and specific language strategies are usually employed to achieve persuasion.

- (2) *Are there any observable differences in the usage of the specific types of engagement markers within each corpus and between the two corpora?*

Our initial expectations (Hypothesis 2) were that copywriters in each corpus would opt for specific types of engagement markers. Therefore, we assumed that there might be some observable differences in the choice of markers within and between the two corpora based on the perception that copywriters have of their persuasive effect in each society.

4. Research results

In this section, the distribution and pragmatic function of the three different types of engagement markers in the two corpora are analysed and compared. The overall analysis of their distribution showed that almost all examples of collected slogans contained engagement markers (97.5% of the slogans in the English corpus and 95% of the slogans in the Macedonian corpus). The text presented in the slogans was given most frequently as a directive, as an appeal for action, or question, either rhetorical or a question with a suggested or given answer, or an assertive. Pronouns were also often used either as self-mentions⁵ or engagement markers.

4.1 Directives as appeals for action

Directives as appeals for action (in the following text just Directives AA) are engagement markers used by writers to engage the audience in the discourse by urging them to act or see things in a way the writer sees them. With the use of these markers the writer aims to take control and show authority (Hyland, 2005b: 371). They are mainly realized through imperative forms which are “clearly directive and usually portrayed as indicating a command” (Palmer 1988: 80). However, directives AA are not only simple commands but they are also complex rhetorical strategies which modify the relationship between the writer and the reader (the copywriter and the consumer). They are face-threatening acts so it is very important to have in mind who uses them, how they use them and for what purpose.

⁵ Read more about self-mentions in Hyland 2005c. Usually famous stars were hired to promote a brand e.g. *I am Paul McCartney* and *I am a Vegetarian* (PETA). However, in this paper we only focus on pronouns used as engagement markers.

According to Myers (1994: 43), copywriters use them “not because telling you to do something really makes you do what they say, but because it will create a sense of a personal contact; as one person would be talking to the other.” Besides that, directives AA help them take control over both the text and the reader. Their use makes an advertisement clearer, more convincing, and simple to understand. In this analysis, we adopted Hyland’s (2005a: 372, 2004: 101) classification of the three main functions of directives in the text:

1. **textual directives**, which allow the writer to guide readers to some textual act, referring them to another part of the text or to another text;
2. **physical directives**, which are used to instruct the readers to perform a physical act, either involving a research process or real world action;
3. **cognitive directives**, which can steer the readers to certain cognitive acts, where readers are initiated into a new domain of argument, led through a line of reasoning, or directed to understand a point in a certain way.

The analysis showed that directives AA are very often used as a persuasive strategy in advertising slogans. English copywriters used them in 52.5% of all the analysed slogans, while Macedonians did so in 65% of the slogans. So, although the corpus was not very big and we cannot make very solid conclusions, the results are still an indication of the tendency of copywriters in both societies to opt for directives as a strategy in order to attract customers’ attention. Especially Macedonian ones. As for the different types of directives AA, textual directives were not used at all, but copywriters used mostly physical directives (accounting for 57 % of the directives used in the English corpus and 54 % of the directives used in the Macedonian corpus) and cognitive directives (accounting for 43 % of the directives used in the English corpus and 46 % of the directives used in the Macedonian corpus). Examples (1)-(3) feature the use of physical directives.

- (1) *Buy it. Sell it. Love it.* (eBay)
- (2) *Подару Со Љубов, Од Срце За Здравје!* (Vitalia)
[Give A Gift With Love, From Your Heart And Be Healty! (Vitalia)]
- (3) *Отстранете Ги Влакната Засекогаш!* (Laser Medical)
[Remove Hairs Forever! (Laser Medical)]

In all the three examples customers are urged to perform some activity. In example (1), for instance, copywriters direct potential customers to buy products from e-bay, or sell them there and then love the whole process. In (2), they are instructed to buy some Vitalia products and give them as a gift, a healthy gift. In (3), copywriters direct customers to visit Laser Medical in order to get permanent hair removal. What is interesting to note is the usage of the second person pronouns in Macedonian slogans. Macedonian, unlike English exhibits the T/V (Ти/Вие) distinction and when addressing the customers, copywriters sometimes use a 2nd person singular pronoun⁶ (as in (2)) and sometimes a 2nd person plural pronoun (as in (3)). The plural form is considered the more polite form. However, the results from the analysis showed that they opt for the singular form twice as frequently than the plural. Obviously, the usage of the singular form helps the copywriters to establish a closer, friendlier and warmer relationship with the customers, and thus to be more persuasive.

⁶ In the Macedonian language, besides the explicit use of the pronouns, the grammatical person can also be expressed in the verb form (e.g. *отстранете ги* – *remove!*)

Examples (4) and (5) below feature the use of cognitive directives because with them, the copywriters lead customers to understand an idea. In (4), for instance, they lead potential customers to learn to build up their self-confidence by believing in themselves and their creative ideas (the plural form of the 2nd person is used) and in (5) to learn that they must take care of themselves and their body.

- (4) *Научете да Верувате во Себе и Вашите Идеи* (Овде и сега)
[Learn to Believe in Yourselves and Your Ideas (Here and now)]
(5) *You Are Not A Sketch. Say No To Anorexia.* (Star Models)

Some slogans contained both physical and cognitive directives. Examples (6) and (7) are perfect instances of such a mixture.

- (6) *Be A Volunteer. Change A Life.* (Crisis Relief Singapore)
(7) *Stop The Violence. Don't Drink And Drive.* (Ecovia)

In (6) the copywriter aims to inspire customers to make a change in others' lives by volunteering. Therefore, the physical act leads to a cognitive act – you do not physically change someone's life but by taking an action and volunteering you can do it. In (7) the copywriter asks people to stop the violence by not driving when under the influence of alcohol. So, in this example, people are urged to think deeply (a cognitive act) about what will happen if they are driving drunk so that they can understand the point.

Cognitive directives can sometimes be misunderstood for physical because the verbs used might leave the impression that people should perform some physical act when they actually are expected to understand an idea and then act in accordance. There were some like these used in both corpora. See, for instance, examples (8) and (9):

- (8) *Release The Night Monkey!* (V- energy drink)
(9) *Get In Touch With Your Inner Child. And Let It Play In Traffic.* (Ottawa International Animation Festival)

In (8) copywriters ask people to perform an act of releasing some inner night monkey when they actually want their customers to understand the benefits of a drink - it releases you and makes you feel free. So, they indirectly invite them to buy a V-energy drink which will make them more energetic and active. In (9) customers are invited to attend the Ottawa International Animation Festival and feel like children again. They should mentally get in touch with their inner child and let it have fun. So, we classified these two directives AA as cognitive. However, we want to point out that in advertising slogans cognitive directives' ultimate goal is to make people do or buy something, like consume a drink (in the first example) or attend a Festival (in the second example).

In addition, we analysed the types of verbs used in the slogans following Leech's (1966) classification of verbs frequently used in imperatives in advertisements. There are three types of verbs:

a) the first category consists of verbs which have to do with the purchase of a product or service (e.g. *get, buy, choose, ask for etc.*) as in (10)-(12).

- (10) *Buy it. Sell it. Love it.* (eBay)
(11) *Одберу Coca Cola Страна На Животот*
[Choose Coca Cola Side of Life] (Coca Cola)
(12) *Get In The Game* (Samsung)

This category of verbs was most frequently used in both corpora (23,81 % of English slogans and 19,23 % of the Macedonian slogans). The verb *get* was preferred the most by the copywriters in both countries.

b) The second category consists of verbs which have to do with the consumption or use of a product (e.g. *have, try, use, enjoy etc.*), as in (13) and (14).

(13) *Уживајте Во Програмите На Најдобрата Дигитална Телевизија Boom TV*

[Enjoy Watching The Best Digital Television Boom TV] (Boom TV)

(14) *Вкуси Цуси!*

[Taste Juicy!] (Juicy)

We found verbs from this second category used in both the English and Macedonian corpus (accounting for 4, 47% of the English slogans and 15, 48 % of the Macedonian slogans). As it can be seen Macedonians use it about three times more frequently, which means they focus on the consumption and use of products much more than the English.

c) The verbs in the third category act as appeals for notice. For example, *look, see, and watch* are used to direct the customer's attention and *remember* and *make sure* are used to give the customer a piece of advice on how to act in the future. This category was not really found in the corpus. Example (15) below is an example of an appeal for notice.

(15) *Види Музика. Слушни Слика. Добиј Книга.* (Македонска филхармонија)

[See Music. Hear a Painting. Get a Book. (Macedonian Philharmonic)]

Here, the copywriters try to attract the customers' attention by using a mix of incompatible verbs and nouns. The promotion of these Macedonian Philharmonic events was very successful in Macedonia, which leads us to conclude that such a play with words attracts people's attention.

In addition, there were also a few prohibitive warnings used in the slogans in both corpora. Leech (1972) stated that "prohibitive warnings are very infrequent. (...) Only about one imperative in fifty is accompanied by a negative form" (see in Lapšanká, 2006). There were only two prohibitive warnings used in the English corpus (e.g. *Don't be evil* (Google) and *Stop The Violence. Don't Drink And Drive (Ecovia)*), and only one in the Macedonian corpus (e.g. *Не сонувајте за нов автомобил. Едноставно купете го!* / *Don't dream about a new car. Simply buy it!* (Тутунска банка/ Tutunska Bank)).

In the English slogans let-imperatives were also used. They are marked by the use of *let* with a 1st person plural pronoun in order to express a suggestion involving both the copywriter and the customer (e.g. *Let's Not Throw It All Away* (The National Gas Company Trinidad and Tobago Limited)). By involving themselves in the message, the copywriters try to establish a closer and friendlier relationship with the potential clients and thus transmit a more persuasive message. However, in some slogans they just directly addressed the customers, as in *Let Your Fingers Do The Walking* (Yellow Pages). Here, they give suggestion and appear as experts whose piece of advice should be followed. Macedonian copywriters did not use the let-imperatives. Since the corpus was relatively small, we cannot know for sure if this was just a coincidence or Macedonians in general do not really consider this a persuasive strategy which should be used in slogans.

So, the overall analysis showed that directives AA are very often used as a persuasive strategy by copywriters, especially by Macedonians. They are short, encouraging and

forceful and serve mostly to attract the customers' attention or encourage them to buy something immediately (physical directives) or think about an idea and change a particular lifestyle (cognitive directives). Some directives leave the impression that they summon people for a physical act, when they are in fact cognitive. However, their final goal is again to make customers realize something and then act in accordance. Copywriters from both societies mostly opt for verbs which have to do with the purchase of a product or service. They mostly prefer the verb *get*. They also use verbs which have to do with the consumption or use of a product, especially Macedonian copywriters.

4.2 Questions

Questions are another type of engagement markers which "arouse interest and encourage the reader to explore an unresolved issue with the writer as an equal, a conversational partner, sharing his or her curiosity and following where the argument leads (Hyland, 2005a: 185)." They are used "to involve the reader into dialogue with the writer and they are supposed to arouse the reader's interest" (Markovic, 2003: 46).

Questions have a similar effect to that of commands, as they also establish contact with the person addressed. According to Biber et al. (2000), both imperatives and questions are more common in conversation than in writing. Since the language of advertising resembles the language used in conversation more than the one used in writing, it is naturally expected that questions and imperatives will be used more often. Questions provide a conversational quality to the advertisement and help establish a personal relationship between the copywriter and the potential customer (Myers, 1994; Leech, 1966). By pushing customers into this kind of communication, where they are expected to provide mental answer to the question posed, the copywriter succeeds in drawing them from passive receptivity (Leech, 1966). After that customers decide whether or not to buy the product.

So, generally, questions are used to arouse the curiosity of the customers through presupposition; they are not expected to give a direct answer and feedback to the copywriters but to give an answer to themselves. According to Lapšanská (2006), in advertising, presupposition is a very frequent way of expressing content, and copywriters rather use presupposition than assertion because it is much easier to deny an assertion than a presupposition. According to Goddard (1998: 125), presupposition is "all about reading between lines; since this is a hidden process, it is very interesting to advertisers, as we can be taking in all sorts of assumptions without consciously paying attention to them." So, in advertisements, the question is usually stated as kind of a 'problem' and then the text might offer an answer – 'a solution' for the problem or might suggest an answer as in rhetorical questions. Rhetorical questions require an answer that may either be obvious or immediately provided (Myers, 1994: 49). The answer is often one that justifies the purchase of the product or asserts its superiority. These types of questions are used frequently in advertising because they increase the persuasive effect and message processing. They are used to draw attention to something.

Questions were used in both English and Macedonian advertising slogans (accounting for 20% of the English slogans (out of which 12% were questions with a given answer and 8% were rhetorical questions) and for 22,5% of the Macedonian slogans (out of which 7.5% were questions with a given answer and 15% rhetorical questions)).

Questions followed by a 'solution' for the problem were used in both corpora, but were especially preferred in the English corpus. Examples (16)-(19) feature such advertising slogans.

(16) *Potty Mouth? Chew Orbit Gum.* (Orbit)

(17) *Први Брчки? Врати Ја Младеишката Кожа За Само 1 Недела.*

[First Wrinkles? Get Back The Younger Looking Skin in Just 1 Week. (Avon)]

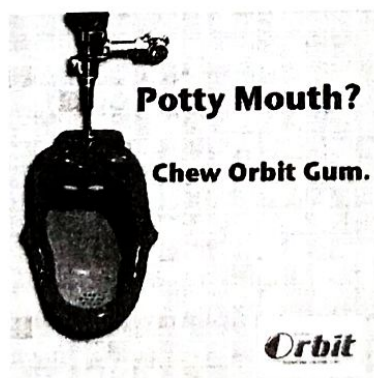
(18) *Need To Lose 20 Pounds? Try Sensa Free!* (Sensa)

(19) *Сакаш Да Си Слаб? Јави Се Во Xenimak*

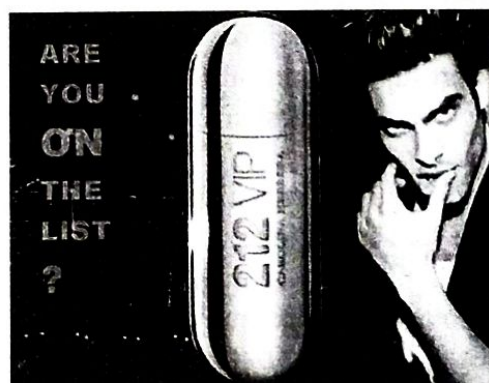
[Want to Be Thin? Call Xenimak! (Xenimak)]

In examples (16) and (17) the question is actually a noun phrase which gets its pragmatic force by the use of a question mark. In (16) the advertising slogan directs the reader to a solution for a potty mouth - chew orbit gum! In (17), the copywriter touches upon a sensitive topic and then the answer offers a quick solution – buy Avon products to fight your first wrinkles. Similarly, the advertising slogans in (18) and (19) are incomplete question forms, just verb phrases which are followed by a question mark. This lack of a full question form also has persuasive potential. In both examples a solution is offered to weight problems, directing people to use Sensa free/Xenimak. As it can be seen, in all the examples questions are followed by answers which have the form of directives AA. And again, the usage of the 2nd person singular pronouns by Macedonian copywriters to directly address customers is noticeable in examples (17) and (19).

Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, were also used in both corpora but almost twice as frequently in the Macedonian slogans, which means that Macedonian copywriters tend to invite people to come to the solution themselves. The product or the brand name was usually presented after the question suggesting the answer to the question that customers have to come up with. Pictures 1 and 2 are clear-cut examples of the difference between a question with a given answer (picture 1) and a rhetorical question (picture 2). In picture 1 the copywriter immediately gives the answer containing the product's name (Orbit), while on picture 2, the customers are just asked a provocative question, and they have to infer the answer themselves (sign up for 212 VIP perfume).



Picture 1. Question-answer



Picture 2. Rhetorical question

Examples (20)-(24) feature the use of rhetorical questions in both corpora.

(20) *Why pay for frills when you can fly with amazing low fares?* (Air Asia)

(21) *Зошто Инструмент Табла Без Копчиња Е Поедноставна?*

[Why the Instrument Board With No Buttons Is Simpler?] (Citroën)

- (22) *Dreaming Of A Holiday?* (Kielo Travel Agency)
(23) *Are You On The List?* (Carolina Herrera Perfume)
(24) *Дали Имате Зголемена Потреба Од Магнезиум?*
[Do You Have An Increased Need For Magnesium?] (Biolectra)

In (20), the question triggers a presupposition in people's minds – they should not pay extra but should use Air Asia, which offers amazing low fares. Of course, one may oppose the question and say: "I don't believe it. No way." But the question leads the receiver unconsciously to believe that the content is truthful and that there are no doubts about the fact that they recommend; therefore, presupposition avoids the need to use a direct claim. Question (21) triggers a presupposition that some parts of the car will be able to be controlled by the sense of touch without any buttons, which leads customers to believe that such cars are much simpler and therefore better. Question (22) directs the customer to think about their holiday and offers a place (Kielo Travel Agency) where they can find out more about different destinations. In (23) the question raises the reader's curiosity to learn the reasons why they should be on the list. If they want to be on the list, they should try a Carolina Herrera Perfume. Finally, in example (24) the question is directed to the group of people who have a magnesium deficiency. This question is used as a tool of attraction to get the reader involved in the advertisement produced by Biolectra and to search for the solution this company offers.

As it can be seen, copywriters use direct address in some questions which apparently helps them establish better contact with their customers. In the next section we analyse the use of pronouns in the two corpora of advertising slogans.

4.3 Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns for the first and second person, are known as pronouns for personal reference or personal metadiscourse and they are 'used to refer to definite specific individuals identified in the speech situation (first and second person) or the preceding text (third person)' (Biber et al., 1993: 328). According to Koneski (1966: 211) the most significant characteristics of these pronouns is that they show who speaks to whom and help locate the author's and reader's references.

These engagement markers are used by copywriters to create a direct and close relationship with their customers and show concern for the customers' interests. According to Yu (2006: 8), by using more pronouns copywriters "want to add more credit to the subject advertised, to get more affection from customers and emotional understanding of the image of the product besides emphasizing quality." It should be noted that when analysing the Macedonian corpus, we took into consideration not just the overt forms of the pronouns (*we* and *you*) but also their incorporation in the verb form through the use of appropriate (first or second person) affixes (Koneski, 1966). The analysis showed that 1st and especially 2nd person pronouns (both overt and covert⁷ form) were used in more than 90% of the slogans in both corpora, which shows that the direct address and the involvement of the addressees in the slogans are the most frequently employed persuasive strategies by copywriters to make customers buy products or services. In the next section, we present the distribution and usage of first and second person pronouns.

⁷ used in directives

4.3.1 First person plural pronouns

As is known, the plural first person plural pronoun *we/ние* and its corresponding possessive determiner *our(s)/наш(и)* can be used in both inclusive and exclusive senses (including or excluding addressees) (Hyland 2005c) in an advertisement. With the use of the inclusive *we*, copywriters include the readers in the discourse, whereas the exclusive *we* excludes the reader but includes the (copy)writer and, usually, the company they represent. It shows a greater degree of authorial presence. The inclusive *we* can also represent a generic use referring to the writer and a large group of people, the whole society, for instance. It creates a close relationship between writer and the reader and stresses solidarity. Through its use, the copywriters shorten the distance between them and the readers and they also show a friendly and personal image (Myers, 1995).

In our analysis, the inclusive *we* and its possessive determiner *our* were used in only 7.5% of the English slogans, and were not used at all in the Macedonian ones. Examples (25) and (26) feature their use in the English corpus:

(25) *The More We Are, The Stronger We Are!* (European Union)

(26) *It's Ours!* (Powers Whiskey)

In example (25), the inclusive *we* refers to both peoples (or countries) who are part of the European Union and a large group of people (or countries) who want to be a part of that union. In example (26), *ours* refers to the copywriter (to the company) as well as to all the consumers of whiskey. Through the use of *ours* the copywriters try to create a sense of belonging and thus persuade the customers to be part of the group – to buy Powers Whiskey because it is something they share. When reading these advertising slogans, the readers immediately feel a sense of belonging. Both the copywriters and the customers seem “to have established a much more intimate relationship and are conducting a face-to-face conversation (Jingxia et al., 2015: 22).”

The exclusive *we* was used in 5% of slogans in both corpora (see examples (27) and (28)).

(27) *We Are Going To Make You Laugh, We Are Going To Teach You Something You Didn't Know, And We Are Going To Inspire You.* (Mr. Magazine)

(28) *Ние Трајно Ги Отстрануваме Влакната...Со Навиките Справете Се Вие!*

[We Remove Hair Permanently...You Face Your Own habits. (Aurora ELOS Syneron)]

In example (27), the exclusive *we* refers only to the people who work in Mr. Magazine. In example (28), it refers only to the people who work in Aurora ELOS Syneron. In these examples, there is an authorial presence.

The analysis has shown that copywriters from both countries sometimes use the exclusive *we* to talk about their company and the products or services it offers. Although English copywriters rarely use the inclusive *we* to involve potential customers in the discourse, this does not seem to be a strategy employed often by copywriters from both countries.

4.3.2 Second person pronouns

Copywriters use the second person pronoun *you/ти,вие* and its possessive form *your/ твој,ваа* in advertising to refer to the addressee or the potential customers

directly. They express a one-to-one relationship. According to Jingxia et al. (2015: 22), the second person pronoun *you* has “the effect of creating dialogic atmosphere and activating the mode of oral communication, making the existence of the reader explicit, and getting the involvement of the addressee in the current situation immediately.” The second person pronoun *you* has a metadiscourse function and can be used to refer to an individual or to the audience as a whole. In Macedonian, besides the overt form of the 2nd person singular and plural, person is also expressed covertly in the verb form. Moreover, since Macedonian exhibits the T/V distinction, the use of the 2nd plural pronoun in the Macedonian corpus could be considered mainly honorific. Slogans are very short, so it is difficult to make a distinction whether the copywriters used the regular 2nd person plural or the polite form. However, since each person reads the message to themselves, they could understand it as polite address.

Sušinskienė (2013: 182) claims that the use of the second person pronoun *you* offers a great number of advantages:

- a) the message in the slogans with the second pronoun *you* is thought of as directly addressed to an individual and *you* is the most direct of addressees;
- b) through the placement as a grammatical subject the customers are given the main role in the action depicted in the slogan;
- c) the customers unconsciously picture themselves as the one described in the slogan; so, both the brand name and the second person pronoun are used together to make advertising copy different from other types of discourse.

The personal pronouns for direct address were used in almost all slogans in both corpora, i.e. in 82.5% of the slogans from the English corpus and 92.5% of the slogans from the Macedonian corpus. However, most of them were used covertly. The overt form of the second person pronoun *you* was used more frequently in the English slogans (accounting for 32, 5% of the English slogans) than in the Macedonian (accounting for 10% of the Macedonian slogans). To these we can add the usage of the covert form of *you* in the directives, which accounted for 52.5% of the English slogans, and 65% of the Macedonians slogans. In the Macedonian corpus there were also examples of the use of a covert form of *you* in assertives. In the Macedonian language, as it was already mentioned before, person is expressed covertly in the verb form, unlike English where only the overt form is used (except in directives). Because of the efficiency of the language production, Macedonians often do not use both the overt form of the pronouns and a verb but use either the pronoun or the verb directly. For instance in the following slogan: *Сега можеш да ме викаш и алпинист (Fiat Panda)/ Now you can call me a mountain climber (Fiat Panda)*, the second person is expressed with the verb *можеш* = *може* + *ш* (base form of the verb + 2nd person suffix). The use of the overt form of the pronoun *you* would be considered redundant.

Examples (28)-(31) below feature the use of the direct address in both corpora.

(29) *You Can Decide How Many Children You Want* (Planned Parenthood)

(30) *Absolute You. Absolute Woman* (Bruno Banani)

(31) *Дали Имате Зголемена Потреба Од Магнезиум?*

[Do You Have An Increased Need For Magnesium? (Biolectra)]

(32) *Сега Можеш Да Ме Викаш И Алпинист*

[Now You Can Call Me An Alpinist (Fiat Panda)]

Any person reading these slogans can feel that the writer addresses them directly and they are not excluded from communication (Goddard, 1998). In the English examples, (29) and (30), the copywriter directly addresses parents and women respectively. In the Macedonian examples (31) and (32), the author addresses the potential customers directly but in comparison to (32) where the singular form is used, in (31) the copywriter uses the 2nd person plural as a polite form of address. And again, the English slogans feature the overt form of pronouns, while the Macedonian ones, the covert form expressed in the verb form.

The possessive form of the second person pronoun, *your*, was used in both the English and Macedonian slogans (accounting for 15% of the English and 7,5% of the Macedonian slogans).

(33) *Your Vision. Our Future.* (Olympus)

(34) ...*Вашиот Стил... Вашиот Живот...*
[...Your Style... Your Life... (Faber)]

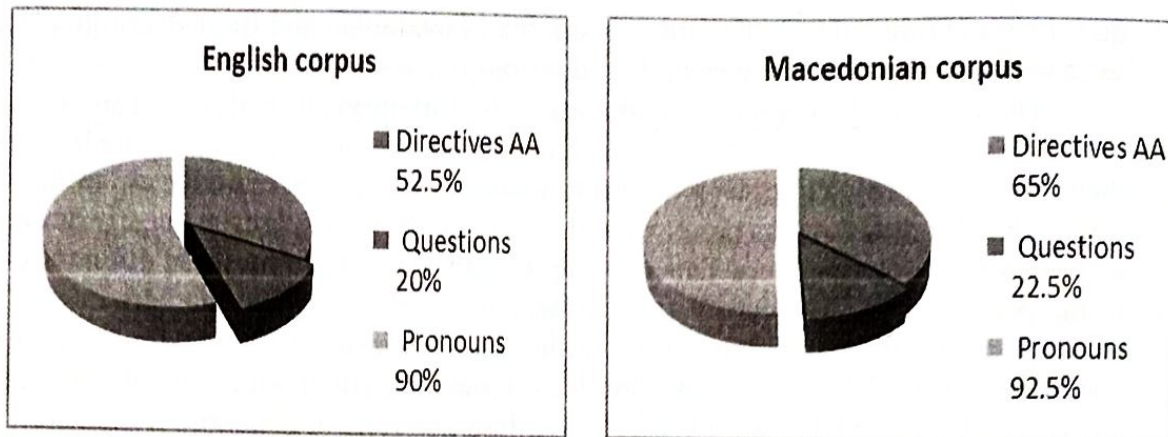
In example (33) the copywriter addresses customers directly by stating that their vision is the company's future, meaning that they will make sure they meet the needs and vision of their consumers. This creates a feeling of security and belonging. You need something and someone is capable of making your dream come true. This slogan is a bit different from the one in (34) where the Macedonian copywriter puts the accent on the readers (consumers) by stating that the use of the product adds to their style and life which are solely theirs. Again, this usage of the 2nd person plural can be considered honorific.

So the analysis showed that copywriters from both countries opt for the use of the second person pronoun and its possessive form rather often because they obviously consider it a useful persuasive strategy which engages the readers in the discourse and brings the product or service closer to them.

5. Discussion

The analysis proved that engagement markers were rather frequently used in both corpora (accounting for 97.5% of the slogans in the English corpus and 95% of the slogans in the Macedonian corpus) which means that they are very often used as a strategy for persuasion by the copywriters from both countries, which proves our first hypothesis true.

As for the second research question, the analysis showed some slight differences in the use of specific markers within each corpus and between the two corpora, although the general tendency of distribution was more or less similar, which proves our second hypothesis partially true.



Graph 1

Overall distribution of engagement markers in the English corpus

Graph 2

Overall distribution of engagement markers in the Macedonian corpus

Namely, as it can be seen from graphs 1 and 2, pronouns were used most frequently by copywriters in both corpora with the aim to evoke a feeling of intimacy in the addressee. English copywriters opted for many more overt pronouns than Macedonian ones and they seem to involve the potential customers in their messages both with first and second person pronouns. On the other hand, a detailed analysis showed that the Macedonian copywriters avoided using the inclusive *we*, but used only 2nd person pronouns. However, they opted mostly for the covert form of the pronouns presented in the verb form in directives and they used the overt form much less frequently than the English. Furthermore, both the English and Macedonian copywriters use directives AA frequently, much more than questions (52.5% - the English corpus and 65% - the Macedonian one). Macedonians do, however, seem to prefer directives AA and (rhetorical) questions more than English. This might be an indication of some difference in the perception of the persuasive effect that directives and questions have in advertising slogans in both societies.

6. Conclusion

This paper attempted to put the theory of persuasion and metadiscourse markers into practice through an empirical research on the use of engagement markers as interpersonal metadiscourse markers in advertising slogans as a genre. The text used in slogans is usually very short, so copywriters manipulate language to present their brand in the best manner and attract customers to buy or use it.

The analysis, which focused on the form, frequency of use, and pragmatic function of directives AA (generally imperatives), questions, and personal pronouns in both English and Macedonian slogans, confirmed the theory presented on the importance of metadiscourse on achieving persuasion. The analysis did show that engagement metadiscourse markers are very frequently used as a persuasive strategy in advertising slogans and their main pragmatic function is to help copywriters to establish a close relationship with their potential customers and involve them in the discourse in order to persuade them to buy a certain product or specific services. Furthermore, the analysis showed that the tendency of usage of the specific types of engagement markers (directives,

questions and pronouns) is the same in both the Macedonian and English corpora. There were just very slight differences in their distribution.

The form of the slogans in both corpora was mainly a directive, and sometimes a question. The analysis showed that Macedonians opted for directives AA more frequently than the English as well as 2nd person pronouns mostly expressed covertly in the verb form, while English copywriters preferred a more overt personal reference, mostly direct address with 2nd person pronouns. This might be an indication of some slight differences in the perception of the importance and persuasive effect of specific markers in both cultures, but in order to confirm this, further analysis needs to be done with a bigger corpus and somewhat different methodology. Questions (both with and without a given answer) on the other hand were used more or less the same in both corpora. Overall, the analysis showed that slogans are carefully-crafted messages. Copywriters manipulate language to convey a persuasive message and thus attract the customer's attention, and engagement markers indeed help them a great deal in achieving this aim.

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OD TEORIJE KA PRAKSI: ULOGA METADISKURSA U POSTIZANJU UBEDLJIVOSTI REKLAMNIH SLOGANA

Rezime

Rad koristi teoriju metadiskursa kao okvir za razumevanje komunikacije kao društvenog angažovanja (Hyland, 2005c) u empirijskoj studiji korišćenja markera angažovanja kao metadiskursnih markera i njihovog doprinosa ostvarivanju ubedljivosti reklamnih slogana kao žanra. Metadiskursne markere koriste govornici/pisci da bi usmeravali kako slušaoci/čitaoci primaju poruku i da ih ubede da prihvate njihove stavove. Korišćenje markera doprinosi stvaranju tri aristotelovska retorska modusa ubeđivanja: etosa, logosa i patosa, i postizanje komunikacije koja je logična, uverljiva i afektivna (Hyland, 1998, 2005c). Rad analizira formu, upotrebu i pragmatičku funkciju markera angažovanja u interpersonalnom metadiskursu u po 40 reklaminih slogana u engleskim i makedonskim reklamama, u cilju da se ispita njihov doprinos ubeđivačkom efektu u ovom specifičnom žanru.

Kvantitativna i kvalitativna analiza je potvrdila teoriju da je glavna pragmatička funkcija metadiskursa u štampanim reklamama da ubedi klijente da kupe konkretne stvari ili usluge. U oba korpusa pisci reklama su koristili markere angažovanja da uspostave bliski odnos sa potencijalnim kupcima tako što su ih uključivali u diskurs i pokušavali da ih nateraju na delovanje. Mada dobijeni na ograničenom korpusu, rezultati analize podižu svest o upotrebi metadiskursa u reklamama i njegovog persuazivnog efekta na publiku.

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